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A Review of Current Graduate and Research Activities

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VOLUME V NOVEMBER 1956 NUMBER 3

Development of Higher Education in the Eastern Areas of the Soviet Union

GEORGE K. LEWIS, *Assistant Professor of Geography, College of Liberal Arts, Boston University*

This article is based on information submitted to the Boston University GRADUATE JOURNAL *by Vladimir Krylov, Assistant Head of the Administration of Specialized Secondary Schools under the Ministry of Higher Education of the USSR. Submission of this material was made in response to a request directed to the Soviet Information Bureau, Moscow, through the Soviet Embassy, Washington, D. C., by the Editor of the* GRADUATE JOURNAL. *The original article was received in the form of an "Interview with V. Yelyutin, USSR Minister of Higher Education."*

The growth of education in the Soviet Union has been one of the most outstanding aspects of the development of that country since 1920. Many of the improvements, moreover, have come about since the end of World War II. The Soviets first concentrated on their primary system, in order to raise an abysmally low literacy rate, then moved on into the secondary schools, and most recently to the various institutions above the secondary level.

The net result of this educational drive has been a seven-year primary course for nearly every child, a goal of universal secondary education[1] (three years above elementary) by 1960, and nearly two million students at the college level in 1956. These figures do not include the large numbers of workers and other non-students who are enrolled in evening colleges and correspondence courses. Soviet citizens, it would appear, seem to realize the benefits of this latter form of training fully as much as, if not more so, than persons in this country.

Training at the college level has been receiving particular attention in the eastern areas of the Soviet Union in recent years. The area treated by Mr. Yelyutin in his interview includes all of non-European Russia, i.e., the Ural region, Siberia, the Central Asian republics, and the Far East. These are areas in which the Soviets have been likewise

[1]The general subject of secondary school training, with particular emphasis on specialist training in vocational schools will be described in a subsequent article in the JOURNAL.

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pushing agriculture, extractive industries, and manufacturing, along with a continuously expanding transportation network.

In 1920, only four out of the country's ninety-six higher educational establishments were in this eastern territory. This region had all the characteristics that the Western World gave it — isolated, uninhabited, underdeveloped — a fitting place for political prisoners.

Today there are over two hundred college level institutions in this area, with an enrollment of 400,000 students. Even these schools cannot fill the demand, however, as projected plans under the sixth Five-Year Plan show. For it is in the USSR east of the Urals that the most revolutionary changes in the Soviet landscape are taking place.

The impetus that was probably most responsible for the rapid development of the Soviet East was World War II. The Soviet Union was forced by the extensive German invasion in the west to move many of its factories into the protective recesses of Siberia and Central Asia. Furthermore, the Soviets were forced to prospect in these latter areas for those raw materials that had been lost to the Germans in the west.

It should not be inferred that little or no development in these areas had gone on before 1940, because many mining and industrial towns had sprung up in the 1930's, particularly in the Ural region and along the trans-Siberian railroad.

But it was in the post-World War II era that the Soviets decided to further stimulate expansion in these eastern areas. They realized, first of all, the strategic value of the inaccessible interior of their country, and the decentralization of industries has continued. Secondly, the vast wealth of resources in this heretofore little explored area was now more fully appreciated, and exploitation was projected on a greatly amplified scale.

Siberia alone possessed as much as seventy-five per cent of the USSR coal reserves, eighty per cent of the timber resources, and four-fifths of the Soviet hydroelectric potential, not to mention numerous metal ore deposits.

The third decision with respect to eastern areas is the most recent and, in many respects, the most interesting since it involves great risks, unlike the other two "sure bet" moves noted above. This was the expansion of agriculture into cooler environments on one hand and more arid environments on the other — a move calculated and impelled by no less a dignitary than Mr. Kruschev himself.

All of this means but one thing to educational facilities in these regions, whether they are preoccupied with mining, agriculture, or heavy industry — expansion. By the end of the current Five-Year period (1960) higher educational establishments here will be called upon to train an additional 100,000 persons in addition to the 400,000 already enrolled.

It is proposed to meet this need in several ways. Older established training facilities, if they are located properly, can be expanded. Certain of the existing institutions will be moved to new locations

"with a view to bringing them closer to the particular industries and training specialists in the districts where they are to work." And, of course, new schools will be built in areas of new demands that have been created.

There is an overwhelming emphasis upon the "technical" training of "specialists" in these college-level institutions. For example, in Khabarovsk, three new institutes are projected: one for forestry technicians, another for highway engineers, and a third for general construction engineers. There is naturally a great demand for these types of specialists in any expanding "frontier" region.

Evening college courses and correspondence courses are playing an increasingly significant part in this educational expansion scheme. There are today over 700,000 persons registered in such courses in regular higher educational establishments in the USSR. Between 1950 and 1955 this system provided the country with more than 260,000 specialists with a college education, two and one half times as many as in the previous Five-Year period.

Study along these lines is urged upon Soviet workers, and special attention is being given to this program. The present Five-Year Plan calls for 600,000 graduates of evening colleges and college correspondence courses. Many of these will come from the new or enlarged institutions in the eastern part of the USSR.

Educators, government officials, and other interested persons in the United States have become increasingly aware of this spurt in Soviet education — particularly its emphasis upon the training of engineers, scientists, teachers, and technicians of all kinds. These persons are being educated, as former Senator Benton[1] has pointed out, not only for the Soviet economy (and therefore its military potential) but also for export into the under-developed and so-called neutral countries of Asia, Africa, and the Middle East.

No sane person suggests that the United States should immediately undertake an "academic numbers race"[2] with the Soviet Union, but there are areas in the United States educational picture where serious deficiencies are apparent. For example, in 1954 United States colleges graduated 23,000 engineers; in that same year, the Soviets produced 53,000, with 63,000 prepared in 1955. There has, naturally, been speculation as to precisely what defines an "engineer" graduate of a Soviet school, but this, in a sense, loses sight of the greater problem.

The state-stimulated and state-financed educational system of the Soviet Union presents a challenge to both the public and private colleges and universities of this country. We have seen the statement frequently in recent months to the effect that the Soviet system is designed to train "human instruments" while ours is "to educate

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[1]Benton, William, "Now the 'Cold War' of the Classrooms," *The New York Times Magazine*, April 1, 1956.

[2]Killian, James R., Jr., "The Shortage Re-Examined," *American Scientist*, Vol. 44, No. 2, April, 1956.

human beings,"[1] but this type of thinking, while momentarily reassuring, diverts our attention from the central issue.

This report on the development of higher education in the eastern areas of the Soviet Union, whose facts and figures we can accept as reasonably reliable, gives increased weight to a critical examination of the concepts and aims behind undergraduate and graduate instruction in the United States.

[1]Benton, *op. cit.*

Further Notes on Emblem Books

In the GRADUATE JOURNAL of December, 1955, the Chenery Library reported the acquisition of its first emblem book, the 1548 edition of Alciati.

During the past summer the Library has acquired another emblem book of especial charm and interest. It is Jan Krul's *Minne-Beelden*, Amsterdam, 1634. While our other emblem books make use of classical or religious scenes and figures, this delightfully humorous collection includes domestic scenes with ordinary Dutch folk going about their various daily activities. The theme is the courtship of a maiden and the vicissitudes of love. Almost as interesting as the story of the romance is the depicting of the homes, the furniture, and costumes of the period. The type is clear but heavy as are most Germanic or Gothic fonts. Pages are foxed and some illustrations are worn. It has a plain paper cover, not contemporary with the text.

The following is a list of emblem books and books about emblems now in the Chenery Library:

Alciati, Andrea	*Emblemata.* Lyons, 1548.
	Omnia Andrea Alciati. Antwerp, 1577.
Krul, Jan H.	*Minne-Beelden.* Amsterdam, 1634.
Haeften, Benedictus van	*Schola Cordis.* Antwerp, 1635.
Quarles, Francis	*Emblems, Divine and Moral.* London, 1839.
Alciati, Andrea	*Emblematum.* Manchester, 1870.
Green, Henry	*Shakespeare and the Emblem Writers.* London, 1870.
Long, James	*Eastern Proverbs and Emblems.* Boston, 1881.
Corrozet, Gilles	*Hécatomagraphie.* Paris, 1905.
Bayley, Harold	*A New Light on the Renaissance Displayed in Contemporary Emblems.* London, 1909.
Praz, Mario	*Studies in Seventeenth Century Imagery.* London, 1948.

M. D. H.

Society's Scientific Responsibility*

DUNCAN E. MACDONALD, *Dean*
Graduate School, Boston University

The recent dramatic contributions of science have created a popular impression of humanity sitting on the doorstep of a new era. This view is held with mixed emotion, both fear and hope, for the doorstep is that of a modern duplex; and threat and opportunity are the tenants.

Threat lies in the possible consequence of continued effort in the development of newer and more terrifying tools of war. Opportunity rests in the yearned-for achievement of a peaceful world — one that utilizes great new power sources. A world that derives ever-increasing beneficent influences from automation as applied to all areas of human operation. A world that can apply the continued advances of medical science toward universal physical and mental health and contented longevity. Here, then, are the alternative settings for the new age. They are indications of the significance that science holds in either setting.

We are all aware that many spokesmen have voiced concern over this role that has been accorded the sciences in this new age. While I share concern, I cannot help but feel that these spokesmen have tended to overlook some of the fundamental issues in that they have failed to recognize that which is new about the new age, and they have neglected to recognize the role of science in the new age.

Throughout history, science has played a profound role in the shaping of our society. The development of the pen, paper, the printing press, newspapers linked with modern commercial transportation nets, radio, and now television, have made communication of knowledge available to ever more people. Details of current events are now currently available. Education for large numbers is now a fact.

In any area we choose to examine, we become aware of this remarkable rate of progress of society promoted by the continuing development of a highly complex and ever-increasing technology of everyday existence. This progress is recorded over a long span of history and has not been achieved without encountering previous thresholds. Thus, humanity's position on the doorstep of a new era is not a new experience. The introduction of the wheel, the industrial revolution, the advent of commercial electric power are but few illustrations of giant thresholds of past new eras.

By dint of modern communication, the fact that we are entering a new scientific era has become common knowledge. We have been made aware of imminent new technological advances that give promise of better living. Society, for the first time in its experience, is

*This article is based upon a speech presented at Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa, October 6, 1956, by Dean Macdonald, titled "The New Science and the New Age."

forewarned that it is embarking on a new era. This experience, the widespread anticipation of an imminent new age, is new.

Another aspect of the age was clearly stated by Walter Lippmann in a recent [August 30, 1956] column, "The men who are remaking the social structure of America and the world are rarely prominent at [political] conventions. They are not speech makers, or speech writers for the multitude; their degrees are not in the Arts, in Law, or in Social and Political Sciences, but in the natural sciences. In the laboratories of universities they are reshaping the future faster than the politicians can keep abreast."

Mr. Lippmann may have slighted the role of the social scientist in his statement, but he does convey an essentially correct picture of our times. It is not new that scientific advances of one age reshape the social structure of the following age. With the new emphases on science and the new tools of communication, science now possesses the potential for influencing social change at a much faster rate than heretofore. This is another new characteristic of the new age.

Public concern about this great new potential is desirable. Too often, however, this is expressed as concern over the lack of social responsibility of the scientist. I am not nearly as concerned over the lack of social responsibility of the scientist as I am over the failure of society to recognize its scientific responsibility.

By the very nature of his purpose and function, the scientist must work with thoughts and ideas that are untried and untested. It is the purpose of the scientist to question the how, the why, the what, and the when. It is the function of the scientist to seek objective answers to these questions. We must not expect that present philosophies and present value judgments may not be further altered as a result of future scientific advancement. It is clear from the lessons of history that the incorporation of scientific progress into social thinking and social practice has provided an imbursement to society in culture, in human values, and in human progress. It is clear from these same lessons that in time, all scientific truth becomes so incorporated.

Today's world is in a state of dynamic social flux. Today's world is geared for major scientific advancement on all fronts. If we may judge from history's lesson, the emerging strong society of the new world will be that which is best prepared to incorporate the social change, the social progress, and the broadening cultural and humanistic bases that scientific advancement is to make available in these years ahead.

Society faces a new responsibility — call it a scientific responsibility — that must call for wider appreciation and understanding of the nature of science, of the method of the scientist, and of the scientific heritage of our culture. The degree to which we accept a responsibility for science may well turn out to be the measure of the relative growth or decline of free society.

Bronowski, in his article, "The Educated Man, 1984," which appeared in *Science*, April 27, 1950, points out that "science was once

the concern of specialists and now enters into the life of everyone," and later adds "you have no right to talk about war and peace and to vote for rearmament or disarmament. . . or to make intelligent decisions on contemporary issues unless at home in the tradition of science since Giordano Bruno and Galileo."

We have all read of the pressing shortage of scientists and technologists in this country. This is a desperate shortage in the face of today's world and has created a keen focus on the responsibilities facing American education. I am convinced that our failure to provide an opportunity for the non-scientist to develop a genuine appreciation of science creates an even more desperate situation. Yet, in the face of this ever-increasing impact of science on everyday existence, we find today fewer high schools in our nation offering elementary science courses than twenty years ago, a markedly small number of high school students interested in science courses, and our Liberal Arts schools requiring less natural or biological science for degrees than thirty years ago.

It is not only that we must develop a scientific responsibility — we must be prepared to broaden our cultural bases compatible with the recognition of the effects of scientific change. The key to this is the reduction in the time lag between the accepted fact and the resultant social change.

For example, the history of Western Civilization has grown to a most significant stature in the college curricula. This is quite proper, for the western nations have been in a position of cultural and political leadership in the world for centuries. The reason for their cultural and political leadership stems, in no small measure, from their scientific leadership and the resultant impact of this upon their culture. In recent years, however, the spread of the technology of communication has made education available over a broader area, and as a result, science and technology are rapidly sweeping over the globe. We have observed the Russian, through emphasis on education, moving in a single generation from an illiterate society to one possessing an increasing number of institutions of higher learning, theatres, books, high-flying jets, heavy industry, and nuclear energy sources.

Modern communications and industrialization give science a significance and potential for bringing about social effects that now may spread rapidly throughout the world. We must now recognize, after the fact, that we are already in that era that demands knowledge about civilization far more extensively than our present conventional cultural backgrounds of education provide. This is an example of an impact of the new science.

A more general awareness of the relationship of science to social progress could well have produced a general anticipation of this present educational deficiency. The background that we must now possess to live in today's world involves an understanding and appreciation of history, government, art, culture, customs, economics, and sociology — not only of the west, but of the world.

What is new about the new age? It is not that we have come to the threshold of a new era, but rather that we have been made to recognize this position and to anticipate the results. It is not that science can influence social change, but rather it is the rate at which such change now can be influenced that is cause for alarm. It is not that there is concern over the lack of social responsibility of the scientist, for this is neither a new nor valid concern.

This is a picture of a society knowing that it is rapidly moving into a new age—an age that it has not been prepared to understand or anticipate. These are the ingredients that go to make fear, doubt, reluctance, and resistance. These can only be removed by the development of an understanding and appreciation of science, its methods, and its role in social progress. This, as we move into the new age, is society's scientific responsibility.

Careful consideration of the threat of the new age is of vital concern, for this is the alternative to the contented, prosperous, and enlightened society. The threat of the new age relates closely to the question of the role of science in this new age. In no small measure it is the specific fact that some scientists are working to make the consequences of war still more terrifying that has led to the concern over the lack of the scientist's social responsibility. It is, however, our society which has decided that deterrence through military strength is the road to an ultimate peaceful world. This decision is not that of any small segment of our society, such as the scientists; it is the decision of society as a whole. In this the scientists are working for and in accordance with society's decision. While I do want to emphasize that I feel strongly that this is a correct decision at the present time, I am still greatly concerned about the enormous public apathy toward this element of threat. The individual living in any nation that becomes involved in a major war now faces a high probability of damage to self, family, home, and personal interests. There is no longer any rationale that can justify apathy. As weapons systems continue to grow in area effectiveness, and the time between continents continues to shrink, we move toward an era when the alternatives facing civilization as we know it are simply co-existence or non-existence. Few more important decisions have ever faced mankind. Our leading medical authorities state that a major atomic bombardment will produce radiation damage that will cover the globe, affecting even the individuals not suffering direct blast damage, creating destruction and/or drastic change in genes, mutations, and sterility.

I would hope that some of the great institutions of our life, including education and religion, might soon take a more aggressive leadership than heretofore in assuming major roles in this problem of world peace. Time is running out and the passive indifference of individuals must give way to an aggressive searching for peace. I would like to point out that positive action such as inspection for international control of armaments was easy in 1919 as compared to today's problem. It was relatively easy in 1946 as compared to today's prob-

lem. Today it is difficult, and I would advance the proposition that it will be virtually impossible by 1965. Why, then, does there exist this public apathy? Some social scientists of a Freudian orientation would emphasize the effect of the suppression of childhood aggressions, both in the home and in school, and the resulting guilt feelings that are built up in maturity, as giving us a society with a need for self-destruction. As a physical scientist, I am somewhat more optimistic. I would say that it is anything but hopeless if society accepts its scientific responsibility and becomes fully aware, unpleasant as it may be, of the consequence of not achieving world peace, yet of the consequence today of not being fully armed. It must be noted that an awakening awareness of society is indicated in the fact that resolution of conflicts between individuals and between groups [e.g. labor and management] have moved, in general, towards less violent means of settlement.

I pose the alternatives, co-existence and non-existence, because I do not hold with the many spokesmen who state that war will not come because it is now so terrible that no party will start it. I do not share their belief because, first, as we move toward the development of guided missiles, the reaction warning time in case of an attack with such weapons will be a matter of minutes. Because of this, possible control will become lost. In this era the short reaction time that we must have for decision will require that the sense of responsibility, the degree of intelligence, the extent of consultation, and the number of checks and balances required for thoughtful decision must continually be dispersed through an ever-widening delegation of both authority and responsibility. Thus, the door opens ever more to the possibility of involvement of an irresponsible person or an irrational action. Second, because with time, the technological advancements of any nation are matched by many other nations, irresponsibility and irrationality within third, fourth, and fifth parties must become an ever-increasing concern. Finally, the weapons of war are becoming ever more secretable, thus, inspection becomes ever more difficult. I hold, then, that the problem of world peace is today an urgent problem.

Clearly, in this world composed of beings and things, we have achieved a vicious closed loop, when we must continue to direct our progress to areas where we create more devastating things under the pretense of protecting the beings. In this type of race we can all too easily lose sight of the fundamental point: namely, that the beings would not be in need of this type of protection in an international community in which more human understanding and more inter-society understanding existed. We now have good communication tools which we can and must utilize toward this understanding — but our own education must come first.

A vast number of scientists today, in this country and throughout the world, are anxious to conduct research and development on the subject of world peace. Yet, of the billions of dollars spent annually in this country for research and development, our government, be-

cause its people have not demanded it, has no research program on this most important problem — world peace. Here is an illustration of the need for society to develop a scientific responsibility. We no longer have a right not to be vitally concerned with bolting the door against threat. Indeed world peace is a most practical solution.

The new science and the new age present to society a challenge for accepting, for recognizing, the full measure of its scientific responsibility. If society accepts, it faces unlimited horizons that involve a continual broadening of our cultural and humanistic bases, continuation of social reforms, bettering of living standards, and increasing leisure time and growing contentment.

Education faces a great challenge and a great opportunity for it must lead in the recognition of the new responsibilities. It must include the development of understanding and acceptance of change, for progress involves change.

The new science places humanity at a giant threshold, but from here, it can be only the responsibility of all society to select the proper doorway to the future.

Notes on the African Research and Studies Program

Dr. William O. Brown, Director of the African Research and Studies Program, is touring seven African countries as a member of a three-man delegation from the Ford Foundation. The delegation expects to confer with government officials and educators in Africa and to learn of programs that can contribute towards improved understanding and cooperation between educational institutions in America and Africa.

Dr. Elizabeth Colson is on leave from the University to direct a study of several groups of Tonga people who will soon be moved from their present location in the execution of the Kariba Gorge Project of Northern Rhodesia. Dr. Colson will be affiliated with the Rhodes-Livingstone Institute during this period.

Dr. Grace G. Harris will be a member of the staff during Dr. Colson's absence. Dr. Harris received her degree in Anthropology from Cambridge University and has worked for twenty-six months in Southern Kenya.

Dr. George Horner will join a team of scholars from various American universities in a five-year study of differential responses of selected African societies to Western secular institutions. This study has been made possible by a Carnegie Corporation grant. The team will carry on their research in four West African territories under British and French administrations. Dr. Horner plans to be in the Ivory Coast of French West Africa during the year 1958-59.

Mr. Colin Newberry, en route to his post in the department of history at the University College at Ibadan, visited the African Research and Studies Program Department of the University.

Report on the German Federal Republic

ELWOOD H. HETTRICK, *Dean*
School of Law, Boston University

At the invitation of the State Department of the German Federal Government, I had the pleasure of a short but intensive visit to Germany during the month of June, 1956. For me, the visit was an educational venture in international understanding. The purpose behind the invitation of the Bonn Government was never made entirely clear beyond the invitation, which read in part, "On behalf of the German Federal Government, I have the honor to invite you on a four weeks' study-tour of the Federal Republic and Berlin as guest of the Federal Government.

"This study-tour is intended to enable you to acquaint yourself personally with the new Germany. You will be given opportunities to become familiar with conditions in the Federal Republic in general and in your own sphere of interest in particular. As guest of the Federal Government, you will meet leading personalities in public, political, and cultural life and be able to discuss with them questions of interest to you. Furthermore, the programme provides for sufficient spare time so as to give you every opportunity to study our conditions from your own point of view."

The hospitality of Frau Dr. Thiry of the Auswärtiges Amt and other official persons was most gratifying. I was cordially received everywhere. Everyone gave generously of their time and interest.

After a five-day period in Bonn, which included meetings and conferences with official government persons and committees in both the executive and legislative branches of the Government, I was permitted to select my own travel agenda for the remainder of the tour.

This agenda included not only the towns and cities which I wished to visit, but also the social, cultural, and industrial areas which were of particular interest to me. The State Department provided me with a list of official persons to be contacted in each area. All arrangements which I requested in each area were readily made, and my host in each city made many valuable suggestions as to persons and places of local interest.

The trip included the cities of Cologne, Bäd Godesberg, and Mainz in the Rhineland; Munich, Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Ausberg, Nürnberg, Bamburg and Heidelberg in Bavaria; Frankfurt and Warburg in Central Germany; Berlin (both eastern and western sectors) and finally, Hamburg, Essen, and Aachen in northern and western Germany.

This note is in no sense a full report of the tour. Space limitations preclude a detailed statement. It is merely a presentation of the itinerary with a few personal observations and impressions.

During the tour, I had the opportunity of visiting some eleven

universities, institutes (political and social), and Gymnasiums. In Bonn, I visited the Beethoven Gymnasium. Here, I attended classes in English, mathematics, and music. The quality of the work was excellent. The music class was working with ear training, rhythm, and pitch. The mathematics class consisted principally of oral drill through manipulations of figures mentally, without use of blackboards or papers. The junior English class was reading a history of the American Revolution, and the senior class was studying Shakespeare's "Julius Caesar." The class was conducted entirely in English. Student and teacher behavior was exemplary. The teachers were energetic and informal in their approach, and the students were eager to perform and quiet without being suppressed or abnormally formal. Although the dress of the students was different in appearance from that of American children, it was not different in that there was uniformity.

In the universities, the classes were consistently large, running to classes of eight hundred to one thousand students, especially in the law classes. The physical facilities were uniformly inadequate by American standards. The large influx of students has already become a serious problem in Germany even with new buildings. On the social side, there is little faculty-student contact. Some universities have no dormitories, and none could house more than a few of their entire student bodies. Therefore, the students live mainly in private houses and become a part of the life of the local community as well as that of the University.

There are no separate schools and colleges within the universities. Instead, the universities are divided into faculties. The usual faculties are: Law, Medicine, Theology, Philosophy, and Science. Several universities have Agriculture Faculties, and many have recently added a Social Science Faculty. In fact, social scientists are in short supply in Germany today.

The teachers and professors are highly trained and well paid and are persons of significance in the community. A "Professor Doctor" is a person apart in the social structure of the university, the community, and the state.

Politically, the Christian Democrats retain control of the Federal Government by working through a coalition. However, the Social Democrats are gaining strength throughout Germany and control many of the state and municipal governments. The most discussed political topics were reunification and the draft. There was considerable unofficial opinion in all parts of Germany that eventually Germany must deal directly with Russia if reunification is to be achieved.

Visiting Berlin was a unique experience in itself. The only way I could get to Berlin was by airplane. While there, I had the feeling of being completely surrounded. Berlin today is truly an island city in a Red Sea. This feeling is not that of the visitor alone, for the people of Berlin have a similar impression. In all German cities, the people like to get out into the country on week-ends, and many have garden plots outside the city limits. However, the people of Berlin have no

place to go today except to their parks and a few limited areas which have been re-wooded since the war, by the Government, especially for this purpose.

There are several hills in Berlin which did not exist before the war. These hills were devised as a means of disposing of the war rubble and debris. The rubble was deposited in huge hills and then loam, grass and trees were combined to erase the scars of war and create many new parks and amphitheatres.

There is a marked contrast between the eastern and western sectors of Berlin, especially in the quality and quantity of the rebuilding, the apparent attitude of the people, and the displays of merchandise in shop windows. The Russians have built many imposing new buildings. However, these are shallow buildings and merely form a façade along the main streets. Extensive war debris is still visible in all parts of the eastern sector. The war memorial, Garden of Memories, is magnificently designed and built. To the eye, it is beautiful; to the heart, it is reverential; but to the mind, it is cynical. It was erected to honor those who died to protect Germany.

All reports to the contrary, there is considerable exchange and travel by the German peoples between the eastern and western sectors of Berlin. There is a curtain there, but the daily movement of peoples back and forth between both sectors does not constitute the iron curtain of which we have read.

A visit to a refugee processing center in Berlin made one thankful to be living in America. Each refugee is meticulously screened. It is only after considerable and lengthy examinations that refugees are permitted to remain in West Germany. Although not officially stated, it would seem that the policy today is to discourage the East Germans from leaving their homes and seeking refuge in West Germany, except where life is endangered. There is the belief that if reunification is to become possible, loyal Germans must remain in the eastern zone in order to exert influence by vote and other support of reunification.

The rebuilding of Germany has been just short of miraculous. The northern areas are farther advanced than the southern. However, throughout the country, rebuilding has been proceeding at a tremendous rate, and with few exceptions, it has been well planned. This is especially true in Berlin and Hamburg where city planning is very far advanced. In most areas, the great architectural and historical treasures of the country have been carefully restored.

Germany is a beautiful country. Its villages and cities are neat and clean. It abounds with natural vacation areas. I found the beautiful Rhine Valley very fascinating with its quaint excursion boats, innumerable commercial barges, the steeply-terraced vineyards, and the many historic hilltop castles overlooking the river below. Also of interest was the near-medieval town of Bamburg with its protective island terrain, narrow winding streets, the famous Dom, the Michaelsberg, the Oberpfarskirche, the Boettinger Haus and the Concordia Haus. Bamburg had little war damage and remains today a treasure

house of medieval renaissance and baroque art. Too, one can never forget the balconies. Nearly every apartment house or home, new or old, has a balcony for each family. Almost without exception, each of these families has brought a bit of the country to their urban backyards. These balconies are decorated with plants, flowers, and even small trees. However, I believe that it is the deep love for the countryside and not just the desire for decoration that motivates the planting of these balcony gardens.

At many times and in many places, as I made my way along a narrow city street, I had a feeling of being in Boston. This familiarity probably came from the expressions on people's faces, the beautifully-decorated shop windows, the crowded sidewalks, the stop-light traffic congestion, and the architecture of the buildings — only the signs and words were different.

NFIP Grants Assist Professional Education

The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, through the Division of Professional Education, provides assistance to colleges and universities, through grants from March of Dimes funds, to enlarge or improve professional education in fields related to patient care. Professional agencies and associations are also assisted.

The Division of Professional Education is concerned with four major areas of activity: the preparation of professional personnel; the improvement of professional education standards in cooperation with agencies, associations, and institutions; assistance to improve or enlarge teaching programs for professional personnel; and the preparation and distribution of professional education media, such as literature, films, and exhibits. Grants are made by the Board of Trustees of the National Foundation acting upon the recommendation of its President and the appropriate advisory committees.

Administration of grant-in-aid programs to colleges, universities, professional associations, institutions, and agencies are designed to: increase the number of qualified professional personnel; help improve standards of education and practice; and provide specialized educational programs for professional persons concerned with care of patients. Funds are available to defray the costs of professional staff and technical assistants, equipment, supplies, and materials for use in connection with programs approved. In those institutions with established retirement, insurance, and related plans, the funds of a grant may be used to defray the usual contributions of the institution, but only in proportion to the amount of salary paid from grant funds. Grants are not available for the construction of buildings.

Colleges and universities desiring grant assistance should initiate the application by letter in which is contained a brief statement as to the nature of the proposed project, a concise description of the plan of execution of the proposed project, and a statement of the financial requirements itemized in relation to salaries, equipment, supplies and materials, and miscellaneous.

For further information write: Division of Professional Education, National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, New York.